

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

# Chapter 1 (Part 2): Sets and Relations

**Hamza MOUFEK**

Algebra 1

October 2024



# Outlines of this talk

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and Relations

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Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## ■ Sets

## ■ Relations Between Sets

## ■ Set Operations

## ■ Cartesian Product ,Power Set and Partition of a Set

## ■ Relations

# Basic Concepts

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation  
Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

A set is a collection of objects called elements or members of the set.

- If  $x$  is a member of the set  $A$ , we write :

$$x \in A,$$

and if  $x$  is a not member of the set  $A$ , we write

$$x \notin A.$$

- The empty set is the set that contains no elements. It is denoted by  $\emptyset$  or  $\{\}$
- Two sets are **equal** if they have exactly the same elements. In other words,

$$A = B \iff (x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

(that is, have exactly the same elements)

# Basic Concepts

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
, Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Examples

- the students in this classroom
- the points in a straight line
- $\{a, b, c\}$
- the set of Even numbers up to 50.

# Basic Concepts

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation  
Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

In set theory there are several description methods:

**Listing :**the set is described by listing all its elements

Example: $\{a, e, i, o, u\}$

**Abstraction:** the set is described through a property of its elements

Example: $A = \{x|x \text{ is a vowel of the Latin alphabet}\}$

Another way to describe a set is to use predicate :

$$A = \{x|P(x)\}$$

This notation is also known as **set-builder** notation.

## Examples

- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid |x - 2| < 1\},$
- $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^5 = 1\},$
- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\} = [0, 1]$
- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x^2 + 3x + 2 = 0\} = \{-1, -2\}$

# Basic Concepts

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

Venn Diagrams: graphical representation that supports the formal description

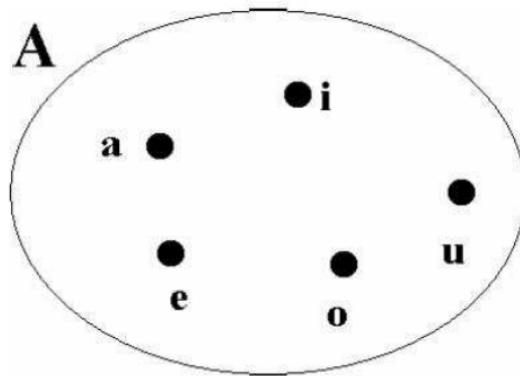


Figure: Venn diagram

# Basic Concepts

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Sets of Numbers

- $\mathbb{N} = \mathbb{Z}^+ =$  natural numbers  $= \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{Z} =$  integers  $= \{\dots, -5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{Q} =$  rational numbers  $= \left\{ \frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0 \right\}$
- $\mathbb{R} =$  real numbers
- $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} =$  irrational numbers
- $\mathbb{C} =$  complex numbers  $= \{x + iy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ where } i = \sqrt{-1}\}$

# Cardinality

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation  
Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

The Cardinality  $|A|$  of a set  $A$  is the number of distinct elements of  $A$ . If  $|A|$  is finite, then  $A$  is said to be finite. Otherwise, is said to be infinite.

## Examples

- $|\emptyset| = 0$  while  $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$
- $|\{1, 2, 5\}| = 3$
- The set of prime numbers is infinite.

# subsets

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
of a Set

Relations

Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation  
Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

- We say that a set **A** is a subset of a set **B**, and we write  $A \subset B$ , if every element of **A** is an element of **B**.

$$A \subseteq B \iff \forall x, (x \in A \implies x \in B)$$

- Sets **A**, **B** are equal, written  $A = B$ , if they have exactly the same elements.  
Equivalently:

$$A = B \iff A \subseteq B \quad \text{and} \quad B \subseteq A$$

- A** is a proper subset of **B** if it is a subset which is not equal. This can be written

$$A \subsetneq B$$

# subsets

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

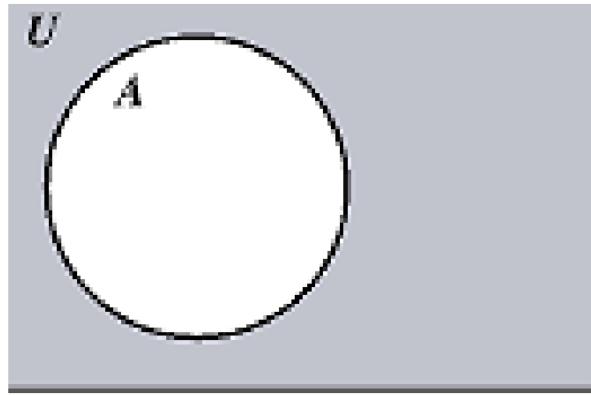


Figure:  $A \subsetneq B$

# subsets

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Examples:

- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | x^2 - 1 = 0\} \subset \{y \in \mathbb{R} | y^2 \in \mathbb{N}\}$
- $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$
- $4\mathbb{Z} \subset 2\mathbb{Z}$

## remark

We have then

$$A \not\subseteq B \Leftrightarrow \exists x | x \in A \wedge x \notin B$$

## Examples:

Let  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2, 5\}$ . Then  $A \not\subseteq B$  because  $\exists 3 \in A$  and  $3 \notin B$ .

Here we collect several results relating to subsets.

## Theorem

- 1 If  $|A| = 0$  , then  $A = \emptyset$ .
- 2 For any set  $A$ , we have  $\emptyset \subset A$  and  $A \subseteq A$
- 3 If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq C$ , then  $A \subseteq C$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

- Let  $A \subset U$  be a set. The complement of  $A$  is the set

$$A^C = \{x \in U : x \notin A\}.$$

This can also be written  $U \setminus A$ ,  $U - A$ , or  $\overline{A}$ .

- If  $B \subset U$  is some other set, then the complement of  $A$  relative B is

$$B \setminus A = \{x \in B, x \notin A\}$$

- The union of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set

$$A \cup B = \{x \in U : x \in A \vee x \in B\}.$$

- The intersection of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set

$$A \cap B = \{x \in U : x \in A \wedge x \in B\}.$$

- We say that  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets:

- The **union** of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \cup x \in B\}$ .

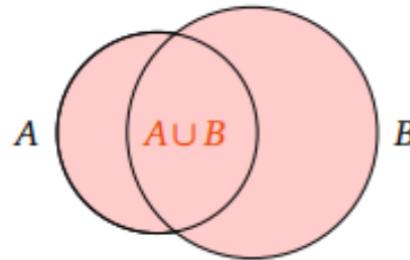


Figure:  $\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets  
Basic Concepts  
Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations  
Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations  
Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations  
Equivalence Relation  
Definition  
Equivalence class  
quotient set  
Ordre Relation  
Definition  
Partial And Total  
Order

- The **intersection** of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \cap x \in B\}$ .

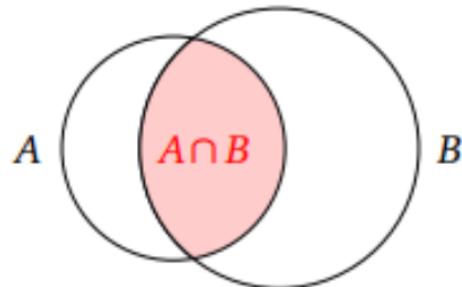


Figure:  $A \cap B$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

- The **difference** of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A - B = \{x : x \in A \cap x \notin B\}$

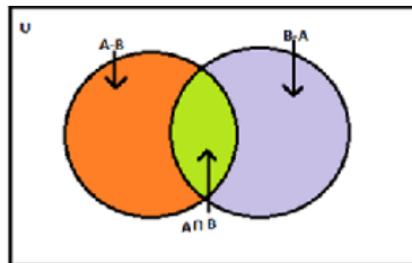


Figure:  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian

Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

- The **symmetricdifference** of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \Delta B = (A - B) \cup (B - A)$

Note that  $A - B$  is, in general, not equal to  $B - A$

- The **complement** of  $A$  is the set  $\bar{A} = \{x : x \notin A\} = E - A$

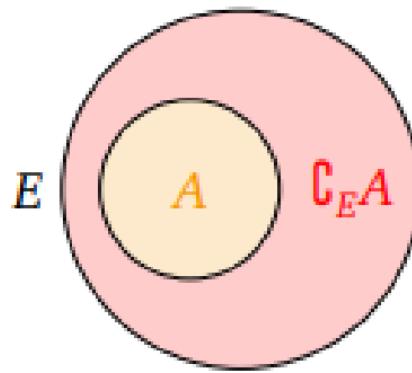


Figure:  $A^c$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Calculation Rules

Let  $A, B, C$  be set . Then :

-1  $\emptyset \cup A = A$  and  $\emptyset \cap A = \emptyset$  (**Identity**)

-2  $A \cap B \subseteq A \subseteq A \cup B$

-3  $A \cap B = B \cap A$  and  $A \cup B = B \cup A$  (**Commutative properties**)

-4  $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$  (**Associative properties**)

-5  $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$  (**Associative properties**)

-6  $A \cup A = A \cap A = A$

-7  $A \subset B \Rightarrow A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$  and  $A \cap C \subseteq B \cap C$ .

-8  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$  (**Distributive properties**)

-9  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$  (**Distributive properties**)

-10  $\overline{(A \cup B)} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$  and  $\overline{(A \cap B)} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$  (**Morgan's Laws**) ,

-11  $\forall A, B \in \mathcal{P}(E), A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A}$

# Unions, Intersections, and Complements

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian

Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

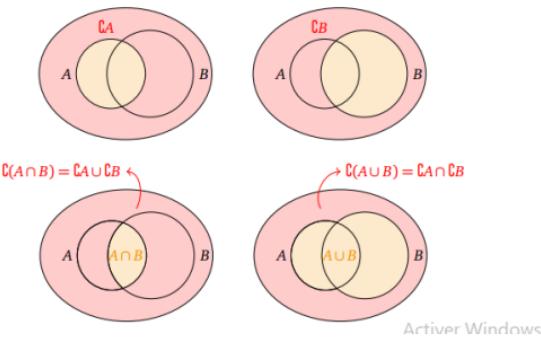
quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

Here are the drawings for the last assertion.



Active Windows

Figure: Morgan's laws

# Cartesian Product

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

- Given two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we define the Cartesian product of  $A$  and  $B$  as the set of ordered couples  $(a, b)$  where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ ; formally,

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

- Notice that:  $A \times B \neq B \times A$
- we have  $(a, b) = (c, d) \Leftrightarrow a = c \wedge b = d$

## Examples

- $A = \{1, 2\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2, 5\}$   
 $A \times B = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 5), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 5)\}$   
 $B \times A = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2), (5, 1), (5, 2)\}$
- $\{1, 2, 7\}$  and  $B = \{\emptyset, \{1, 5\}\}$   
 $A \times B = \{(1, \emptyset), (1, \{1, 5\}), (2, \emptyset), (2, \{1, 5\}), (7, \emptyset), (7, \{1, 5\})\}$
- The Cartesian product  $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  is called the Cartesian plane.

- The Cartesian product can be computed on any number  $n$  of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ .  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is the set of ordered  $n$ -tuple  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  where  $x_i \in A_i$  for each  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- These ordered systems are called triples for  $n = 3$ , quadruplets for  $n = 4$  and  $n$ -tuples for  $n$ . We note it by  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  or in abbreviation  $\prod_{i=1}^{i=n} A_i$ .

When  $A_i = A$  the product  $\prod_{i=1}^{i=n} A_i$  is noted as  $A^n$ .

- like

$$A \times B \times C = \{(a, b, c), a \in A \wedge b \in B \wedge c \in C\},$$

$$A \times B \times C \times D = \{(a, b, c, d), a \in A \wedge b \in B \wedge c \in C \wedge d \in D\},$$

- $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}$  ( $n$  times) is the Cartesian  $n$ -space

# Power Set

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets  
Basic Concepts  
Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
, Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set  
Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

There is a natural way to construct a family of sets. Take a set  $A$ . The collection of all subsets of  $A$  is called the power set of  $A$  and denoted by  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ .

## Definition

For any set  $A$ ,

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{B, B \subseteq A\}$$

## Examples

$$\mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, 5\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 5\}, \{2, 5\}, \{2\}, \{5\}, A\}$$

## Remark

$$|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^{|A|}$$

# Partition of a Set

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

- Let  $X$  be a set. A partition of  $X$  is a collection of disjoint subsets of  $X$  such that their union is  $X$ .
- The collection of subset  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k$  forms a partition of  $X$ , if and only if:

$$A_i \neq \emptyset, \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k = X, \text{ and}$$

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for all } i \neq j.$$

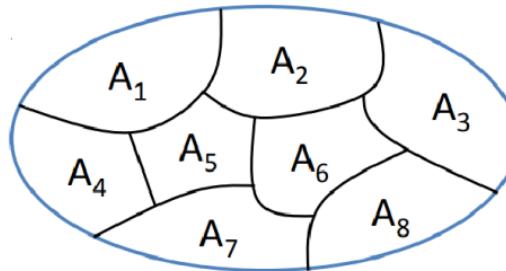


Figure: Partition of a set

# Partition of a Set

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian

Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Example

Let  $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , if we take

$$A = \{1\}, B = \{2, 3\}, C = \{4\}.$$

## Ten

$$F = \{A, B, C\}$$

is a partition of  $E$ , but

$$F' = \{\emptyset, A, B, C\}$$

it is not a partition of  $E$ .

# Definitions

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian

Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

- In natural language relations are a kind of links existing between objects.  
Examples: 'mother of', 'neighbor of', "part of", 'is older than', 'is an ancestor of', 'is a subset of', etc.
- A relation  $\mathcal{R}$  on a set is defined by any subset  $\Gamma$  of  $E \times E$ . When  $(x, y) \in \Gamma$ , we say that  $x$  is related to  $y$  via  $\mathcal{R}$ , and we write  $x\mathcal{R}y$ .  $\Gamma$  is called «the graph of the relation  $\mathcal{R}$ »
- A binary relation on a set  $A$  is a subset  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq A \times A$
- given  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$  and  $a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow a$  is a divisor of  $b$ , then  $\Gamma = \{(1, 2), (1, 4), (1, 6), (1, 8), (1, 10), (2, 2), (2, 4), (2, 6), (2, 8), (2, 10), (3, 6), (4, 4), (4, 8)\}$

is a graph of the relation  $\mathcal{R}$ .

## Examples

- Let  $E = \mathbb{R}$  and define the relation  $\mathcal{R}_1$  by

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}_1 y \Leftrightarrow x = y.$$

The graph of  $\mathcal{R}_1$  is :

$$\Gamma = \{(x, x), x \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- Let  $E = \mathbb{N}^*$  ,and define the relation  $\mathcal{R}_2$  by

$$\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{N}^*, x\mathcal{R}_2 y \Leftrightarrow x|y.$$

We have

$$x|y \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{N}^* | y = kx$$

The graph of  $\mathcal{R}_2$  is

$$\Gamma = \{(x, kx), x \in \mathbb{N}^*\}$$

- Let  $E = \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}, (a, b)\mathcal{R}_3(c, d) \Leftrightarrow a + d = b + c$

# Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

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Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a relation on a non emptyset  $E$

- We say that  $\mathcal{R}$  is reflexive if  $x\mathcal{R}x$ . for all  $x \in E$ .
- We say that  $\mathcal{R}$  is symmetric if  $x\mathcal{R}y \Rightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$ . for all  $(x,y) \in E^2$ .
- We say that  $\mathcal{R}$  is antisymmetric if  $x\mathcal{R}y \wedge y\mathcal{R}x \Rightarrow x = y$  for all  $(x,y) \in E^2$ .
- We say that  $\mathcal{R}$  is transitive if  $x\mathcal{R}y \wedge y\mathcal{R}z \Rightarrow x\mathcal{R}z$  for all  $(x,y,z) \in E^3$ .

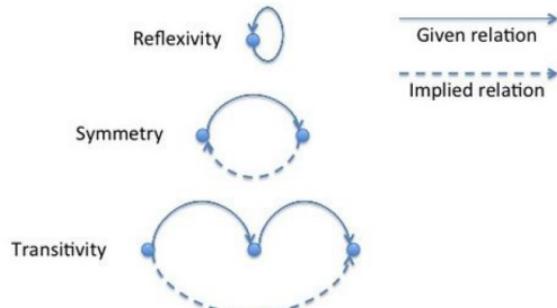


Figure: reflexive, symmetric, transitive

# Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
, Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Example 1

Let  $X = \mathbb{Z}$ , and define a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  by  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow \gcd(x, y) = 1$ . Let's consider what properties  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies.

- Reflexivity: NO. Take  $|x| > 1$ , then  $\gcd(x, x) = x \neq 1$ , so  $x\mathcal{R}x$  is almost never true.
- Symmetry: YES. Since  $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(y, x)$ , we definitely have symmetry.
- Antisymmetry: NO. Obviously we can't have symmetry and antisymmetry at the same time.
- Transitivity: NO. Take  $x = 10, y = 9, z = 20$ . Then we have  $x\mathcal{R}y$  and  $y\mathcal{R}z$ , but we definitely don't get  $x\mathcal{R}z$ .

# Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
, Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Order Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Example 2

Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , and define a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  by  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y$ . Let's consider what properties  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies.

- Reflexivity: yes. Certainly  $x \leq x$  is always true.
- Symmetry: No. It doesn't make sense that  $x \leq y \Rightarrow y \leq x$
- Antisymmetry: YES. If  $x \leq y \wedge y \leq x$ , it is standard to conclude that  $x = y$ .
- Transitivity: YES. If  $x \leq y \wedge y \leq z$ , we know that  $x \leq z$ .

# Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts  
Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Example 3

Let  $X = \mathbb{N}^*$ , and define a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  by  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x|y$ . Let's consider what properties  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies. Indeed,

- Reflexivity: yes. Certainly  $x|x$  is always true.
- Symmetry: No. It doesn't make sense that  $x|y \Rightarrow y|x$ , let  $x = 2$  and  $y = 4$ . We have 2 divides 4, but 4 does not divide 2, Therefore,  $\mathcal{R}$  is not symmetric.
- Antisymmetry: YES. Indeed,

$$x|y \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{N}^* | y = kx$$

$$y|x \Leftrightarrow \exists k' \in \mathbb{N}^* | x = k'y$$

we have then

$$x = kk'x$$

It follows that

$$x(1 - kk') = 0$$

Since  $x \neq 0$  then  $1 - kk' = 0$ . Now ,as  $k$  et  $k'$  are positive integers,we have

# Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
, Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Example 3

$$kk' = 1 = k' = 1$$

Hence

$$x = y$$

■ Transitivity: YES. If

$$x|y \Leftrightarrow \exists k_1 \in \mathbb{N}^* | y = k_1 x$$

and

$$y|z \Leftrightarrow \exists k_2 \in \mathbb{N}^* | z = k_2 y,$$

we have then

$$z = k_1 k_2 x$$

Setting  $k_3 = k_1 k_2$ , we have  $z = k_3 x$  with  $k_3 \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Therefore  $x \mathcal{R} z$ .

# Definition

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Definition

A relation  $\mathcal{R}$  on  $X$  is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

## Example

- The equality relation  $\mathcal{R}$  is an equivalence relation.
- The divisibility relation is not an equivalence relation.(example 3)
- The relation of example 1 is note an equivalence relation.

# Equivalence class

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
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Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections,  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $X$ ,  $a$  is an item in  $X$ .Equivalence class is :

- The set of all elements that are related to an element  $a$  of  $X$
- $\bar{a}$  denotes the equivalence class of  $a$  with respect to  $\mathcal{R}$ .
- $\bar{a} = \{s | (a, s) \in \Gamma\}$  with  $\Gamma$  is graphe of  $\mathcal{R}$ .
- Consider  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and its equivalence relation

$$\Gamma = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 3), (3, 2), (1, 3), (3, 1)\}$$

$$\bar{1} = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\bar{2} = \{2, 1, 3\}$$

$$\bar{3} = \{3, 2, 1\}$$

$$\bar{4} = \{4\}$$

- We have

$$\bar{a} = \bar{b} \Leftrightarrow a \mathcal{R} b$$

# quotient set

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
MOUFEK

Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total

Order

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be an equivalence relation on a non emptyset  $E$ . The set of equivalence classes is called the quotient set of  $E$  modulo  $\mathcal{R}$ . It is denoted by  $E/\mathcal{R}$ .

## Example

We define on the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  the relation  $\mathcal{R}$ , called congruence relation modulo 3, by

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, x - y = 3k.$$

This is an equivalence relation. There are three equivalence classes :

$$\bar{0} = \{3k; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$\bar{1} = \{3k + 1; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$\bar{2} = \{3k + 2; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

So we have

$$E/\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{R} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}\}$$

**Remark** In these example ,when  $x$  is related to  $y$ ,we writ:

$$x \equiv y [3]$$

and we read this as "**x is congruent to y modulo 3**".

# Fundamental Properties

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

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Sets

Basic Concepts

Cardinality

Relations

Between Sets

Set

Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian

Product

,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product

Power Set

Partition of a Set

Relations

Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation

Definition

Equivalence class

quotient set

Ordre Relation

Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be an equivalence relation on the non empty set  $E$ . Then we have :

- If  $y \in \bar{x}$ , then  $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$
- For all  $x, y \in E$ ,  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow \bar{x} = \bar{y}$ .
- If  $u, v \in \bar{x}$ , then  $u\mathcal{R}v$ .
- For all  $x, y \in E$ , we have  $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$  or  $\bar{x} \cap \bar{y} = \emptyset$ .
- Let  $E$  be a non empty set and let  $\mathcal{R}$  be an equivalence relation on  $E$ . Then the quotient set  $E/\mathcal{R}$  forms a partition of  $E$ .
- Conversely, every partition of  $E$  defines an equivalence relation on  $E$ .

# Definition

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
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Sets  
Basic Concepts  
Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations  
Definitions  
Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition  
Equivalence class  
quotient set  
Ordre Relation  
Definition  
Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

Let  $E$  be a non empty set, and let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a relation defined on  $E$ .  $\mathcal{R}$  is said to be an order relation if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

## Example

- The equality relation  $\mathcal{R}$  is an order
- let  $A$  a set and  $\mathcal{P}(A)$   $\mathcal{R}$  is defined on  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  by

$$B \mathcal{R} C \Leftrightarrow B \subseteq C$$

$\mathcal{R}$  is an ordre relation.

- Let  $\mathcal{R}$  is defined on  $\mathbb{N}$  by

$$a \mathcal{R} b \Leftrightarrow a | b$$

is an ordre relation.

# Partial And Total Order

Chapter 1  
(Part 2): Sets  
and Relations

Dr. Hamza  
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Sets  
Basic Concepts  
Cardinality

Relations  
Between Sets

Set  
Operations

Unions, Intersections  
and Complements

Cartesian  
Product  
,Power Set  
and Partition  
of a Set

Cartesian Product  
Power Set  
Partition of a Set

Relations  
Definitions

Special Properties of  
Binary Relations

Equivalence Relation  
Definition

Equivalence class  
quotient set

Ordre Relation  
Definition

Partial And Total  
Order

## Definition

Let  $E$  be a non empty set. An order relation defined on  $E$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{R}$ , is said to be a total order relation if we have

$$\forall x, y \in E, x\mathcal{R}y \vee y\mathcal{R}x$$

We then say that  $(E, \mathcal{R})$  is a totally ordered set.

## Definition

When the order is not total, we say it is partial.

## Example

The usual order  $\leq$  on the set of real numbers is a total order relation, since we have

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \leq y \vee y \leq x$$

The inclusion relation  $\mathcal{R}$  defined on  $\mathcal{P}(E)$  by

$$B \mathcal{R} C \Leftrightarrow B \subseteq C$$

is a partial order relation. Indeed, taking

$$E = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \quad A = \{3\}, \quad B = \{1, 2\}$$

we have

$$(A \not\subseteq B \wedge B \not\subseteq A).$$